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Motivational Climate and Goal Orientation in Adolescent Male Football Players

Sarah Christman McPherson
Clemson University

MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE AND GOAL ORIENTATION IN ADOLESCENT MALE FOOTBALL PLAYERS

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Sarah Christman McPherson
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Accepted by:
Dr. Denise Anderson, Committee Chair
Dr. Toni Liechty
Dr. Skye Authur-Banning

ABSTRACT

Achievement Goal theory and Self Determination theory suggest that the goal orientation of an individual does not develop in a closed room. Rather, it is suggested that an individual's goal orientation is altered through the different perceived motivational climates established in an achievement setting. Therefore, this study addressed two questions: (1) *Does an athlete's goal orientation change over the course of a competitive youth football season?* (2) *Do coaches and parents establish a motivational climate that affects the athlete's goal orientation over the course of a competitive youth football season?* A total of 149 male athletes, 8-13 years old completed two rounds of questionnaires. The first round occurred early in the season and consisted of a demographic questionnaire and the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire. The second round occurred towards the end of the season and consisted of the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire, Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 and the Perceived Parent/ Guardian-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire. No significant changes were found in the athletes' goal orientations over the course of the season. However, significant predictors of late season task orientation included early season task orientation and coach task orientation. Significant predictors of late season ego orientation included early season ego orientation, coach ego orientation and parent success without effort. The findings of this study highlight the potential role that a perceived coach and parent created motivational climate can have in affecting athletes' motivation for engaging in sports.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work in respectable memory of my father, Morris McPherson. It was a true gift to have had the opportunity to watch such a great man live his life. Thank you for always teaching me, protecting me and believing in me.

To my big brother, Philip Howard, who constantly challenges me to be best that I can in everything I choose to do. Thank you for being such an amazing role model and encourager.

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"Keep smiling, because life is a beautiful thing and there's so much to smile about."

-Marilyn Monroe

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Roughly 47 million youth participate in some form of organized recreational sport each year in the United States (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009). Research has shown that youth who engage in sports and other physical activities can experience a number of benefits including an increase in self-esteem, social skills, and emotional development. In addition, a reduction in heath issues and school dropout rates can also be seen following participation (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009; Keegan, 2010). Organized sports play a key role in positively impacting the lives of youth (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009). However, nearly one-third of the youth who participate in a specific organized sport only do so for one year (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009).

One step in the process of helping youth gain the full benefit of organized sports is to understand their motivation to participate. An athlete's motivation will affect the overall quality of their enjoyment during participation. The environment coaches and parents create can determine the overall experience that athletes will carry with them as well as their degree of motivation (Chin, Khoo & Low, 2012). One aspect of this environment is specifically called the motivational climate, which can play a role in the development of an athlete's sport motivation as defined by the achievement goal theory (Duda, 2012).

Background

Achievement goal theory describes individuals' motivation behind participation (Waldron & Krane, 2005). This theory has two main parts. The first part suggests that people have a drive to demonstrate competence and feel successful in an achievement setting, such as sports (Waldron & Krane, 2005). The second part of this theory describes two different goal orientations in which we operate to gain success while we are in an achievement setting such as sports (Boyd, Weinmann &Yin, 2002). Specifically, these two orientations are task and ego orientation. Task orientation is related to developing mastery cooperation by improving upon personal competence, task mastery, and enjoyment. By developing this mastery, individuals will obtain an induced perception of competence (Boyd et al., 2002). Ego orientation is based on individuals' personal subjective evaluation of their abilities as compared to others (Waldron & Krane, 2005). Individuals in this mindset will often base judgments of competence on normative standards or social comparisons (Waldron & Krane, 2005). Individuals who are intrinsically motivated are said to be motivated to participate for their own sake (Chin et al., 2012; Duda, 2012). These individuals are more likely to hold a task orientation. Extrinsically motivated individuals choose to participate for the sake of gaining an outside reward. This concept is closely linked to an ego orientation (Chin et al., 2012).

Individuals' goal orientations are developed and fostered by the motivational climate influenced by others in the same achievement setting (Givvn, 2001; Duda, 1992). Primary socialization factors, such as coaches and parents, are often the ones who set the tone for the motivational climate that individuals perform within (Nicholls, 1984).

Nicholls (1984) suggested that individuals' goal orientations are subject to change over a period of time when they are in specific motivational climates. The shifts in orientation depend on which type of goal orientation is being reinforced in the motivational climate (Waldron & Krane, 2005).

Purpose

Performance is dependent on many factors, both personal and situational. More recently an integral part of achievement goal theory has started to address the environmental influences on the perceptions of athletes in the achievement context (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2001; Waldron & Krane, 2005). This study expanded on a previous study conducted by Waldron and Krane (2005) that focused on the impact of achievement goal orientation and motivational climate on female softball players. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of coaches and parents on athletes' goal orientations by examining the potential change in athletes' goal orientation during a competitive season. The population studied consisted of nine football teams in the Greenville, South Carolina area. The age ranges of the participants were 11 to 13 year olds. In the previously conducted study, the data collection process was inconsistent due to data being collected both before practices and before and after games rather than just before practices as proposed. In this study both early season and late season data collection occurred before the athletes practiced the day they completed their questionnaires. In addition, the results from the male athletes in this study was compared to the results from the female athletes in the study conducted by Waldron and Krane

(2005) in an attempt to extend our understanding of youth motivation in sport for both male and female athletes.

Significance

Athletes can often become disengaged from a sport to the point where they can no longer find enjoyment in playing. To help more individuals gain the potential benefits of organized sports participation, more needs to be known about what influences their enjoyment and perceived competence in sports. One less-often explored avenue is through an understanding of social relationships in the sport setting (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009). This study will allow for an examination of the type of environment that the coaches and parents create from the athlete's point of view. Knowing the type of environment supported by social actors through the course of a season can allow for future practitioners to establish benchmarks for coaching and parent in an effort to educate and help foster the type of environment that is best for positive youth development.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

Research Question 1: Does an athlete's goal orientation change over the course of a competitive youth football season?

Hypothesis 1: Athletes' ego orientation will change significantly over the course of a competitive youth football season.

Hypothesis 2: Athletes' task orientation will change significantly over the course of a competitive season youth football season.

Research Question 2: Do coach(es) and parents establish a motivational climate that affects the athletes' goal orientation over the course of a competitive youth football season?

Hypothesis 3: Task climates created by coaches will predict a task orientation in athletes and ego climates created by coaches will predict an ego orientation in athletes.

Hypothesis 4: The parents/guardians' climates of leaning and enjoyment, worry-conducive, and success without effort will have a significant impact on athletes' late season task orientation and ego orientation.

Definition of Terms

Achievement Goal Theory: A theory that has two distinct orientations to describe a person's motivation in an achievement setting such as school, work and sports. This theory describes two different goal orientations in which we operate to gain success while we are in an achievement setting (Boyd et al., 2002). The two orientations are task and ego.

Task Orientation: A social orientation based on a self-referenced ability where the individual strives to master the task, seeks out ways to improve current skills, and strives to learn new skills (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). This mastery will lead to an induced

perception of competence and success (Boyd etal., 2002; Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003).

Ego Orientation: A social orientation based on an individual's subjective evaluation of his/her abilities compared to others (Waldon & Krane, 2005). Success is only felt when the individual believes his/her performance is greater than the performance of others in the same achievement setting (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003; White, Kavussanu, Tank, & Wingate, 2004).

Motivational Climate: The environment that is created by primary socialization (e.g. parents and coaches) agents that can reflect task and ego qualities (Spray et al., 2006).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Motivational behaviors that are adopted by youth participating in athletics are subject to change based on both personal and situational factors. Attention has been focused on how young athletes adapt to climates created by primary influences, such as coaches and parents (Pensagaard & Roberts, 2001). The way individuals react to the climate that is created can cause them to either continue in their respective sport or dropout completely. The aim of this chapter is to examine the literature related to goal orientation within the context of youth sport with special attention to the roles of coaches and parents.

Youth Sports

Past research has upheld the notion that at least 60 minutes of moderate to vigorous physical activity is recommended each day for youth (Wickel & Eisenmann, 2007). Schools provide scheduled times for physical activity such as recess and physical education classes, but in recent years the amount of time devoted to these endeavors has decreased to less than the recommended time. In the United States, more than 47 million children under the age of 18 participate in organized sports (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009). Organized sports have the ability to provide additional opportunities for physical activity outside of recess and physical education classes to a large number of American children (Wickel & Eisenmann, 2007).

Early participation in organized sports is often considered to be a prime opportunity to develop movement skills, social skills and self-esteem (Keegan, Harwood, Spray & Lavallee, 2008). Research has shown that organized recreational sports are a positive outlet to help foster youth development (Fraiser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005). Optimal development in youth enables individuals to engage in healthy and productive life styles that will carry through adulthood. In sports, it is the responsibility of the ones in charge, such as coaches and parents, to foster the athletes' development by recognizing and utilizing their strengths to develop a more positive experience (Fraiser-Thomas et al., 2005).

Specifically, positive youth experiences and outcomes through participation in sport can be seen in physical, psychological, social, and intellectual areas of adolescent growth (Fraiser-Thomas et al., 2005). Physical benefits to adolescents arise from participation in sports including cardiovascular fitness, weight control, improved muscular strength, bone structure, and flexibility. Sports also offer youth opportunities to challenge their current knowledge of the sport and enjoy their surroundings while increasing self-esteem and decreasing stress (Fraiser-Thomas et al., 2005; Kavssanu & Ntoumanis, 2003). Through active participation in sports, youth are given the chance to experience positive intergroup relations, community integration, and social mobility (Fraiser-Thomas et al., 2005). In addition, research has shown that there is a positive correlation between positive involvement in sports and high academic performance (Fraiser-Thomas et al., 2005; Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004).

The level of the competitive environment within a particular sport will vary

depending on the age and skill level of the athletes. Regardless of the skill level, values that are introduced to the achievement setting need to support positive youth development. Youth programs, such as sports, should be actively working to assure positive outcomes thorough developmentally supportive designs and supportive child-adult relationships (Fraiser-Thomas et al., 2005).

Motivation in Youth Sport

Through the course of any athlete's career, obstacles will be faced on the way to achieving end goals. Overcoming said obstacles takes more than just physical endurance; a great amount of internal psychological pressure also has to be conquered (Vallerand & Losier, 1999). Athletes, coaches and parents often take for granted the importance of motivation in sports. However, motivation has been a common topic in psychology and recreation for several decades and more recently an integral part of research related to sports as it influences persistence, learning, and performance (Beaudion, 2006; Duda, 1989). Motivation is seen as an important variable in predicting the outcomes of sports participation (Pelletier, Forter, Vallerand, & Briere, 2001). Duda (2001) suggested that in order for athletes' engagement in sports to result in a positive experience, athletes need to have positive motivation. Other research has suggested that a positive mindset while participating in sports can lead to an increase in quality of health (Spray, Wang, Biddle & Chatizisarantis, 2006).

Self-Determination Theory

The concept of motivation can be examined thorough different lenses. One popular motivation lens in the youth sport domain is through self-determination theory. This theory examines why people engage in an activity (Spray et al., 2006; Vallerand & Losier, 1999). Self-Determination theory suggests that social contexts may have the power to enhance or undermine motivation (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2009). Furthermore, this theory suggests that there are two main ways athletes are motivated. Athletes could be intrinsically motivated to participate in the sport or they may be driven to participate through extrinsic motivation (Spray et al., 2006). Lastly, self-determination theory also asserts that different types of motivation will have a profound effect on positive or negative consequences for the individual (Vallerand & Losier, 1999).

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation reflects the internal enjoyment, interest and fulfillment of the individual when participating in sports (Pelletier et al., 2001). It is seen as the cleanest form of autonomy and reflects true self-determination (Spray et al., 2006). When individuals are said to be intrinsically motivated they are participating in the sport free from any external influences. (Pelletier et al., 2001). This type of motivation helps facilitate feelings of pleasure and satisfaction derived from the act of participating. Without the aid of external rewards, these individuals are self-regulated, engage in activities of personal interest and experience a feeling of seduction (Chin, Knoo, & Low, 2012). Sports that lead the athletes to experience these feelings are intrinsically rewarding

and increase their desire to participate again (Pelletier et al., 2001).

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation can be seen as the opposite of intrinsic motivation. It refers to behaviors that are strongly influenced by factors clearly external to the individual. The sport is not done for internal enjoyment or to gain a sense of satisfaction (Allen, 2003). Rather, extrinsic motivation can be seen as a means to an end (Chin et al., 2012). That is, the external influences can promise rewards that may drive the individual to avoid punishment (Allen, 2003; Chin et al., 2012). For example, athletes who are engaging in sport simply to fulfill the wishes of a parent are seen to be extrinsically motivated because their initial goal is not to gain personal fulfillment.

A study conducted by Pelletier et al. (2001) looked at self-determination theory as applied to competitive swimmers. He discovered that when a coach's behavior was more supportive it would enhance the motivation in the athletes. Conversely, Pelletier et al. (2001) found that when coaches took on a more controlling behavior, athletes would mimic actions that resemble extrinsic motivations. Therefore, a more supportive behavior by a coach has the potential to lead to greater competitive swimming persistence over a period of time (Pelletier et al., 2001).

Achievement Goal Theory

Achievement goal theory is a subarea of a more general way to understand motivation (Gill, Kelley, Martin, & Caruso, 1991). This theory is part of the social cognitive affective model, which suggests that individuals engage in situations where they can achieve success in order to demonstrate and reinforce confidence (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004; Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003). Certain individuals will judge their level of competence on the basis of subjective views and failure (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). Therefore, achievement orientation emphasizes a connection between individuals who are mastery-focused verses individuals who are more outcomes focused (Gill et al., 1991). More specifically, individuals who are considered to be more mastery driven are said to have a task orientation, whereas individuals who are outcome oriented driven are said to carry an ego orientation (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003).

Task Orientation

An individual who is considered to be more task-oriented tends to use his or her self as a reference when judging competence. These individuals have a need to demonstrate a full understanding of the task (Waldron & Krane, 2005). This orientation is based on self-referenced ability where the individual strives to master the task, seeks out ways to improve current skills, and strives to learn new skills (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). These individuals will start to feel successful when they have reached a level where personal belief of success and their abilities have matched. This is when they have mastered the task in which they are engaging (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003). Intrinsic

motivation is high within these athletes because personal accomplishment is seen as an end in itself (Papaioannou, 1998). These types of people are not motivated by extrinsic rewards such as trophies; rather individuals base competence on self-referenced standards (Waldron & Krane, 2005).

Ego Orientation

Ego-orientated athletes have end results that differ from individuals who are task-orientated. Individuals who are considered ego-oriented will use other people around them as a reference for their personal feelings of success and competence. They are fueled by subjective definitions that other people give success and judge their own competence based on those understandings (Chin et al., 2012; Waldron & Krane, 2005). Ego-oriented individuals base competence on normative standards and social comparison (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004; Waldron & Krane, 2005). At this point success is only felt when the individuals believe their performance is greater than the performance of others in the same achievement setting (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003; White, Kavussanu, Tank, & Wingate, 2004). When emphasis is placed on ego or performance goals, participants are most concerned with the level of their ability. Individuals in this mindset see an accomplishment as a means to and end (Boyd, Weinmann, & Yin, 2002; Papaioannou, 1998). If they achieve success by outperforming others, then they will gain rewards such as increased social status (White et al., 2004). In this case, the external gain of social status is what they are striving for in the end. Athletes who are ego-driven tend to seek tasks that they are overqualified to perform simply to ensure that their chances of

success will be high (Chin et al., 2012). Ego orientation has often led to cognitive anxiety prior to sport performances, during performance, and self-handicapping in sport (Boyd et al., 2002).

Success in Orientation

An integral part of goal orientation is an individual's personal beliefs regarding how success is achieved. Individuals who lean more towards task orientation will use self-referenced criteria to define success. In contrast, individuals who lean more towards an ego orientation define success by performing at a level that surpasses others around them (White et al., 2004).

Achievement goal theory suggests that the beliefs an individual has will be a leading factor in determining which orientation they will adopt. This will eventually influence which motivational process is taken (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). The theory suggests variations in behavior will occur when individuals are faced with different goals in the achievement setting (Waldron & Krane, 2005).

Achievement goal theory has been studied in both the sport and education realms (Duda, 1989; Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel, & Patashnick, 1990). Nicholls et al. (1990) suggested in their study on mathematic performance in the classroom that individuals who identified with a task orientation were more focused on trying to make sense of the formulas. These individuals held a belief that success in math came from effort in which they personally put in and their ability to cooperate with peers. However, individuals who held an ego orientation believed that success came from their abilities to perform at a

higher level than others and to impress the right person.

According to achievement goal theory, in the context of sports, athletes will approach a situation with certain goals, which will reflect personal perceptions and beliefs about how success should be determined (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003), similar to the way the individuals will approach a classroom situation. According to Duda and White's (1992) study on the success of elite skiers, a connection can be made between athletes who are task oriented and intrinsically motivated. Individuals who are said to be both task-oriented and intrinsically motivated view cooperation with peers and self-compliance as a means to success. Conversely, the ego driven individuals view success by the comparison of external factors (e.g. the skill level of others around them), similar to an extrinsically driven individual.

The same results were found in a study conducted by Lochbaum and Roberts (1993) that examined goal orientation and perception in sport. They first examined the different task and ego orientations among the athletes. These examinations helped to define success, strategies that took place during the competition and practices, the benefits of practices, and the overall enjoyment that the athletes experienced. In this study of approximately 300 male and female high school athletes, Lochbaum and Roberts (1993) found that athletes with task orientation adopted successful strategies to master the sport and athletes with an ego orientation focused on achievement strategies that helped them gain social recognition; these findings were consistent with the authors' hypotheses.

Some athletes, such as task-oriented athletes, will engage in difficult tasks and strive to do their best and are persistent when obstacles appear. Other athletes, such as

ego-oriented athletes, often fail to realize the pursuit of goals in a realistic way with regard to their level of capability. Specifically, these athletes do not focus on mastering the skills of the sport, so when obstacles arise they are quick to drop the sport due to their lack of skill development (Boixados, Cruz, Torregrosa, & Valiente, 2004). The goals that athletes possess in achievement settings, such as sport, are essential to understanding motivation (Spray et al., 2006).

Self-Determination and Achievement Goal Theory

Research has shown where there is a connection between self-determination theory with achievement goal theory. Both theories are concerned with different dimensions of the underlying motivations of individuals' actions. Intrinsic motivation promotes a state in which an individual derives pleasure from participation that fosters a task-orientation (Boyd et al., 2002; Spray et al., 2006). Conversely, extrinsic motivation is driven by achievement behavior that is performed for some tangible good or to avoid punishment, which frames an ego-orientation (Boyd et al., 2002; Chin et al., 2012). Someone who is ego driven has an internally controlling state that undermines intrinsic motivation (Chin et al., 2012).

Motivational Climate

There are numerous socialization agents (e.g., parents and coaches) who can impact the "motivational climate" in which a young athlete practices and competes (Keegan et al., 2008; Vallerand & Losier, 1999). The perceived motivational climate is

the climate that is created by primary socialization agents, which can reflect task and ego qualities (Spray et al., 2006).

A task-involving climate is one in which skill improvement, communication on the importance of learning skills, and recognition of the present contributions of all individuals as a key component of the team are highly valued and reinforced. A task-oriented climate tends to be more of an adaptive motivational process that promotes skill acquisition and fosters skill improvement (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004).

An ego-involving climate can emphasize the importance of demonstrating high ability, which can lead to unequal recognition among participants. This climate will focus on mistakes that individuals make and the repercussions to those mistakes. With high competitiveness among teammates, intra-team rivalry is common (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004).

Nicholls (1984) suggested that if individuals remain in a certain environment long enough, their natural disposition to task or ego-orientation will change. In other words, if an individual is perceived to be task oriented and he or she is placed in an ego environment, over time their orientation will start to shift. The structure of the climate in which they are involved shapes one's task/ego involved goals (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004).

Task and ego orientation have been linked to both psychological and behavioral variation in sport and physical activity (Boyd et al., 2002). Therefore, individuals who are in a climate that is perceived to be more task involving will be more inclined to adopt a task orientation (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). Conversely, individuals who are placed

in a climate that is more ego-oriented supported will be more inclined to adopt an ego orientation. Therefore, primary socializations agents can have a direct impact on altering the orientation that will be adopted by the individual in the achievement setting (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004).

The presence of one orientation over the other is not essentially bad, but in an achievement setting, such as a competitive sport, task orientation is typically preferred over an ego orientation. Research has shown that individuals who have higher levels of task orientation have a better probability of engaging in fair play within the sport and focus a majority of their efforts on the team rather than themselves. However, individuals who have higher levels of ego orientation often adopt unfair and illegal means to achieve their personal end goals (Papaioannou, 1998).

Socialization Agents and Motivational Climate

To better understand the motivation that leads an athlete to engage in the sport, one must look at the primary socialization agents (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2009). Achievement goal theory suggests that goal orientations can be developed and changed though various socialization processes, including the motivational climate created by parents and coaches (Waldron & Krane, 2005). The influence that coaches and parents have can be broken down into specific roles due to the athletes' dependence on the specific type of leadership (Keegan et al., 2008). Coaches often focus on instruction and assessment, where parents provide support and facilitate involvement (Keegan, Harwood, Spray & Lavallee, 2010). According to Vallerand's hierarchical model of intrinsic and

extrinsic motivation, coaches and parents play different roles in influencing children, but they are both impactful.

Coaches

In the sports domain, the actions displayed by the coach are expected to have a profound effect on the level and quality of the athletes' motivation (Duda, 2012). Coaches design practice sessions and interact with athletes in training to provide constructive criticism to help motivate their players. The way in which they choose to communicate their criticism will set the framework for the motivational climate, which in turn, sets the environment. Past research has shown that coaches who foster a task motivational climate will see their athletes engage in behavior that will help them positively grow within the sport. Conversely, perceptions of ego motivational climates were linked to counter-productive achievement behaviors (Waldron & Krane, 2005). An example of a task-orientated climate created by coaches is one where emphasis is placed on the athletes' personal improvement in order to help the players feel they are vital assets to the team. In addition, an emphasis is placed on fostering communication among team members. A coach is creating an ego-involving climate when his/her attention is split between the different ability levels of each individual team member (Duda, 2012). In other words, the team member with the highest level of perceived ability is given the most attention. A consequence to this action is intra-team rivalry, which can lead to unsportsmanlike conduct (Duda, 2012; Boixados et al., 2004). This could have an important impact on the athletes' intrinsic interest, enjoyment, anxiety and overall

continuation in the sport (Duda, 2012; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2001).

Parents

Parents play an important, but slightly different role in an athlete's career development (Wuerth, Lee, & Alfermann, 2004). They have been strongly and consistently linked with children's affect, self-perceptions, motivation, and sport involvement (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2008). Parents are often the primary socialization agents for children's engagement in the sport. In particular, young athletes will emphasize the supportive influence of their parents during their career (Wuerth et al., 2004). Hellsedt (1987), suggested that parent involvement in youth sport can been viewed as a continuum ranging from under-involvement to over-involvement. Parents who are considered to be under-involved are said to lack the emotional support to enable the athlete to develop within the sport. However, parents who are over-involved can create unnecessary pressure and emotional distress (Hellstedt, 1987). While the extent to which the parents influence their athlete has not been studied as intensely as the influence of the coach, research has shown that children tend to share the same perceptions as their parents (Waldron & Krane, 2005; White et al., 2004). For example, a study conducted by White et al. (2004) found that players who were high in task-orientation were likely to believe that their significant parent held a task-orientation. In addition, players who were high in ego-orientation were more susceptible to believe that their parents were high in ego-orientation. This study provides evidence that parents have an important function in socializing children to adopt certain beliefs and conditions (Waldron & Krane, 2005).

Parents and Coaches

During a sport season, communication is being exchanged from the coach(es) to the player and from the parent(s) to the player. Eventually these two lines of communication will become one and form the perceived motivational climate. If the motivational climates set by the coach and the parent are congruent, then there are reasons to believe that one particular orientation will strengthen in the athlete, but if they differ then they are more susceptible to shift in their orientation (Waldron & Krane, 2005). However, if the coach-innate and parent-innate motivational climates do not match, it is unclear how the athlete will react (Waldron & Krane, 2005).

Gender Differences

Certain behaviors and actions in society have been labeled as either masculine or feminine based on gender expectations. The motivations to enhance cooperative skills, gain enjoyment, and achieved mastery are more linked to the female athletes. The motivations of gaining rewards such as winning and status are more linked to male athletes (Chin et al., 2012; Duda, 1989). According to Beaudion (2006), adolescent females tend to be more intrinsically inclined to participate in sports, whereas male athletes tend to be more extrinsically inclined to participate. Past research has supported the notion that females tend to lean more towards a task orientation and males tend to lean more towards an ego orientation (Li & Acock, 1996).

As previously stated, the presence of one orientation over the other is not wrong. It is preferred that athletes have a higher level of task orientation so they are engaging in the sport for internal reasons, where as an individual with higher levels of ego orientation are less preferred in a sports setting based on the supported notation that they are more willing to engage in unfair and illegal means to achieve their end goal (Papaioannou, 1998). Some athletes will engage in difficult task in which they strive to do their best and they are persistent when obstacles appear. Other athletes often fail to realize the pursuit of goals in a realistic way in regards to their level of capability. They do not practice on expanding their current skills so when obstacles arise, they are quick to drop the sport (Boixados et al., 2004). The goals that athletes hold in achievement settings are essential to understanding motivation (Spray et al., 2006).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

This study was done in partnership with Greenville County Parks, Recreation, and Tourism (GCPRT). Throughout the course of the 2014 GCPRT fall football season information was gathered on athletes and the perceived motivational climates created by the coaches and parents. The purpose of this study was to examine the changes in athletes' goal orientation during a competitive season and to examine the perceived motivational climates created by the coaches and parents, to predict athletes' late season goal orientation. This current study is an expansion of a previously conducted study on the effects that perceived coach and parent-innate motivational climates had on the goal orientation of female softball players (Waldron & Krane, 2005). The methods used in this study mirrored the methods used by Waldron and Krane (2005), however using a homogeneous sample of male athletes allowed for an examination of not only how perceived motivational climates affected male athletes, but also if there are any apparent gender differences.

Participants

The participants in this study were male football players, 11 to 13 years old. The participants were contacted and recruited because of their affiliation with the GCPRT football league. A total of 9 teams from the 2014 fall football season participated in this study. The number of athletes per team ranged from 15 to 32. A total of 185 athletes

completed the early season questionnaires and 156 completed the late season questionnaires. Completed in this cases means that the athlete met league qualifications, successfully filled out all questionnaires and had a signed parent/ guardian permission form. A total of 149 athletes successfully completed both early season and late season questionnaires and their data from early season to late season was matched for analysis. This total yielded an overall response rate of 81%. The population in this study was chosen due to the convenience of the GCPRT facilities and a long-standing research agreement with GCPRT.

Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected from the athletes at the beginning of the season in order to determine their initial goal orientation and were collected again at the end of the season to see if any changes in goal orientation had occurred. Additionally, demographic information was collected on the athletes during the early season data collection session. Late season data collection measured the perceived coach and parent-innate motivational climate in addition to again measuring the goal orientation of the athlete.

Approval to carry out this study was obtained through the Internal Review Board at Clemson University. In addition, approval and consent was granted by GCPRT, coaches of the football teams, and parents of the players and the players. The regular football season for GCPRT started in early August and ended in late October. Early season data collection was conducted during the first three weeks of the season and late season data collection was conducted during the last three weeks of the season. There

were roughly 9 to 12 weeks between early to late season data collection.

Data Collection Instruments

Participant Background

In order to get a clear understanding of the individuals in this study, each filled out a participant background questionnaire. This questionnaire consisted of items regarding participant age, ethnicity, years of football experience, level of competitive play, and time spent practicing football. An additional item on the survey asked whether or not the participants knew the coach prior to joining the football team in a sports setting or in another role.

Goal Orientation

The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ; Duda, 1989), is a 13-item questionnaire designed to measure the degree to which individuals possess either a task or ego goal orientation. Past research has shown relationships between the TEOSQ scores and individual beliefs about the causes of sport success, perceptions of sport participation, attitudes and views about sportsmanship, and intrinsic interest (Chi and Duda, 1995). The differences measured by the TEOSQ in task and ego orientation have significantly predicted performance and task choice in the physical domain (Chi & Duda, 1995; Duda, 1989). Items on the TEOSQ used in this study were prefaced with the heading "I feel most successful in sport when…" Examples of items include, "I'm the only one who can do the play or skill" (Ego) and "I learn a new skill and it makes me

want to practice more" (Task). The responses were given in the form of a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In past research, the TEOSQ has demonstrated both validity and reliability when used with youth and adolescent sport participants (Chi & Duda, 1995; Duda, 1989; White, Kavussanu, Tank, & Wingate, 2004).

Perceived Coach-Initiated Motivational Climate

To measure athletes' perceptions of current motivational climate of their respective team, the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 (PMCSQ-2; Newton, Duda, & Yin, 2000) was being used. PMCSQ-2 was designed to assess athletes' perceptions of two different involved climates-task and ego. Task-involved climate items reflect that learning is encouraged, all athletes are viewed as valuable, and that effort/improvement is emphasized. Ego-involved items reflect that mistakes are punished, that recognition by the coach is selective, and that feeling of intra-team rivalry exists among players on the team (Reinboth & Duda, 2006). The PMCSQ-2 assessed the degree to which athletes perceive the coach-initiated motivational climate as task or ego. When completing the PMCSQ-2, the athletes were asked to think about what the environment is like on their team (Reinboth & Duda, 2006). Specifically the athletes were asked questions such as, "On this team, the coach wants us to try new skills" (Task) and "On this team, the coach gives most of his or her attention to the stars" (Ego). The questionnaire responses were reflected on a Likert-scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (stongly agree). Previous work on the PMCSQ-2 has found the instrument to have

adequate internal reliability and factorial validity (Newton et al., 2000).

Perceived Parent/Guardian-Initiated Motivational Climate

To examine subjects' perceptions of their mothers', fathers' and/or guardians' responses to learning a new physical activity or skill, the Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire (PIMCQ; White, Duda, & Hart, 1992) was used. This questionnaire asked the athletes to reflect on perceived parental reactions to learning a physical skill by responding to the motivational climate created by their parents (Newton et al., 2000). In this current study the PIMCQ consisted of all three subscales- learning and enjoyment, worry-conductive, and success without effort. The subscale learning and enjoyment reflected a task motivational climate. An example from this subscale was, "I feel that my caretaker values learning one thing before teaching another." The subscales worry-conductive and success without effort reflected an ego motivational climate. Examples of these subscales included, "I feel that my caretaker worries about me preforming skills I am not good at." and "I feel that my caretaker thinks it is important for me to achieve without trying." The responses were given on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The PIMCQ has found to have acceptable internal reliability and the discriminate validity of the measure has been established (White et al., 1992).

Data Collection

Each time data were collected the researcher met with the nine football teams separately. During early season data collection the researcher presented the questionnaires to each team as they came to their required scheduled weigh-ins set by GCPRT. Athletes who met the requirements to play in the football league were allowed to participant in the study. During post-season data collection, the researcher met with all nine teams on their individual practice fields. For both early season data collection and late season data collection, coaches and parents were asked to let only the researcher answer questions and for them to not help or talk to their athletes while completing the questionnaires.

During the early season data collection, athletes were given an assent to participate form, the demographic questionnaire, and the TEOSQ. During the late season data collection, athletes completed the TEOSQ, PMCSQ-2 and PIMCQ. Both early season and late season data collection occurred before practice only. All responses given by the athletes from the same team were kept separately and viewed as clusters.

Data Analysis

Data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and ranges for all variables. Staying consistent with Waldron and Krane's study (2005), a two-paired t-test was used to examine the changes in the athletes' goal orientation. To examine the relationship between goal orientations and coach-initiated and parent-initiated motivational climate two different regression models were used. First

the relationship was examined by implementing a full regression model and for robustness a step-wise regression model was then applied to examine the same relationship. All statistical analysis was examined using SPSS.

This study tested the same research questions and hypotheses examined by Waldron and Krane (2005).

Research Question 1: Does an athlete's goal orientation change over the course of a competitive youth football season?

> ***Hypothesis 1:*** Athletes' ego orientation will change over the course of a competitive youth football season.
>
> ***Hypothesis 2:*** Athletes' task orientation will change over the course of a competitive season youth football season.

Research Question 2: Do coach(es) and parents establish a motivational climate that affects the athletes' goal orientation over the course of a competitive youth football season?

> ***Hypothesis 3:*** Task climates created by coaches will predict a task orientation in athletes and ego climates created by coaches will predict an ego orientation in athletes.
>
> ***Hypothesis 4:*** The parents/guardians' climates of leaning and enjoyment, worry-conducive, and success without effort will have a significant impact on athletes' late season task orientation and ego orientation.

Pilot Test

In order to test the questionnaires for understanding and readability for the proposed age group, a pilot test was conducted with the oldest class of males at the Clemson Elementary Summer Camp. Consent was received from both parents and the camp director. The pilot test was issued to five males, between the ages of 9 and 13, who met the intended participant qualifications. Based on recommendations and questions proposed by the participants minor changes such as the wording of particular questions were made to the questionnaires. In addition, several words were modified to a more age appropriate level.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role of personal and situational factors in organized recreational youth sports with regard to participant motivation. An integral part of achievement goal theory involves a focus on environmental influences on the perceptions of athletes in the achievement context (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2001). The current study expanded on a previous study that focused on the impact of achievement goal orientation on the created motivational climate during a competitive all-female junior varsity softball season (Waldron & Krane, 2005). The purpose of the current study was to examine the influence of coaches and parents on the goal orientation of male athletes, specifically youth football players, over the course of a competitive season, and to determine how results might compare to those that specifically investigated the same information from female athletes (Waldron & Krane, 2005). Thus, the current study sought to extend the understanding of youth motivation in sport for male and female athletes.

Matched questionnaire data from 149 participants (early and late season) were entered and analyzed using SPSS statistical software. The internal consistency for the questionnaires was measured by Cronbach's alpha. The findings of the study are reported below.

Description of Participants

All 149 participants in the study were 11- to 13-year-old males with the majority (39.60%) being 12 years old (Table I). Most participants (46.98%) were in the 6th grade, while 33.56% were in the 7th grade, 13.42% were in the 8th grade, and 5.37% reported being in the 5th grade during the time of the 2014 Greenville County Parks, Recreation and Tourism Department fall football season (Table I). Over half of the participants in this study classified themselves as being Black/ African American (65.10%). Participants who identified as Caucasian/ White were 26.17% of the sample, which was the second largest group in this study. The remaining participants classified as Multiracial (2.68%), Hispanic (.67%) and other (4.70%) (Table 1).

All participants who marked the option "other" were asked to specify in further detail what they view as their classification. Of the seven who marked "other," three wrote they were Caucasian and African American mixed, two wrote they were Hispanic and Caucasian Mixed, one wrote he was Indian, and one wrote mixed.

Table 1. *Demographics*

Age	Percent
11	27.51%
12	39.60%
13	32.89%
Grade Level	
5th	5.37%
6th	46.98%
7th	33.56%
8th	13.42%
Missing	.67%
Racial Classification	
Black/ African American	65.10%
Caucasian/ White	26.17%
Hispanic	0.67%
Multiracial	2.68%
Other	4.70%
Rather Not Say	0.67%

Of the 149 participants, 29 (19.46%) reported that this was their first season of playing tackle football (Table 2). The remaining 120 participants reported to have at least played in 2 seasons of tackle football.

The participants who reported this was not their first year of tackle football were asked to provide the additional information of how many seasons they had played. Approximately one-third (32.22%) of the participants reported playing more than four seasons of tackle football. The remaining reported being in their 3rd season (20.13%), followed by 27.45% in their 2nd season and 10.74% in their 4th season. (Table 2)

Table 2. *Number of Football Seasons Played*

Seasons Played	Percent
First Season	19.46%
2 Seasons	17.45%
3 Seasons	20.13%
4 Seasons	10.74%
More than 4 Seasons	32.22%

Approximately one-half (54.36%) of the participants reported spending between 1 and 2 hours per week, outside of scheduled team practice time, practicing football. The second highest answer reported was less than an hour per week (21.48%). The remaining answers reported were 3 to 4 hours per week (14.09%), 5 to 6 hours per week (6.71%), 7 to 8 hours per week (2.01%) and 9 to 10 hours per week (.67%). No participant reported spending more than 10 hours per week practicing football outside of the team practice time (Table 3).

Table 3: *Hours Spent Practicing Outside of Team Practice Time Per Week*

Amount of Time	Percentage
Less than an hour	21.48%
1 to 2 Hours	54.36%
3 to 4 Hours	14.09%
5 to 6 Hours	6.71%
7 to 8 Hours	2.01%
9 to 10 Hours	.67%
Missing	.67%

Seventy-seven participants reported that they did not know the coach prior to the season starting. Conversely, 71 participants reported knowing the coach prior to the season starting; of these participants, information on their knowledge of the coach is presented in Table 4.

Participants who reported knowing the coach prior to the season starting were asked to specify how they knew their coaches. Forty-four of the 71 participants reported playing football for the coach in past seasons, 16 reported that they were either friends or family, 3 reported that they played for them in other sports, 2 reported that they had a sibling who previously played under them, and 5 did not specify how they knew the coach prior to the start of the season (Table 4).

Table 4. *Prior Knowledge of Coach before the Start of the Season.*

Prior Knowledge of Coach	Percentage
No prior knowledge of Coach	51.68%
Played Last Football Season	29.53%
Played for in Another Sport	2.01%
Friend/Family	10.74%
Sibling Played Previously	1.34%
Yes, but Did Not Specify	4.03%
Missing	.67%

Reliability Statistics

To account for internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each questionnaire using SPSS. The Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire resulted in an alpha of .717, the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 resulted in an alpha of .787 and the Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire resulted

in an alpha of .795. Based on the alpha levels measured by Cronbach's alpha, each questionnaire's reliability was supported as acceptable ($\alpha > .70$) (Howard, 2014; Sharp, 2014).

Descriptive Statistics

Means and standard deviations for Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire (TEOSQ) scores (early and late season) and late season Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 (PMCSQ-2) and Parent-Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire (PIMCQ) scores are listed in Table 5.

All questionnaires in this study were given as likert scale from 1 to 5. Means were ranked into categories of low, moderate and high (Waldron & Krane, 2005). A low range has a score between 1 and 2.67, moderate range has a score between 2.68 and 3.32 and a high range has a score between 3.33 and 5 (Waldron & Krane, 2005). Examination revealed that mean scores for early and late season ego orientation are considered to be in the low range. In regard to early and late season task orientation the means fell within the high range. The mean for the coach created ego climate fell in the moderate range, while the mean for coach created task climate fell in the high range. Parent created climate of learning/enjoyment revealed a mean that fell within the high range and both parent/guardian created climates of success without effort and worry-conducive revealed means in the moderate range.

Table 5. *Means and Standard Deviations of Early Season TEOSQ, Late Season TEOSQ, Late Season PMCSQ-2 and Late Season PIMCQ*

Variable	Early Season		Late Season	
	Mean	**Std. Deviation**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Ego Orientation	2.27	.82	2.24	.83
Task Orientation	4.38	.49	4.40	.59
Coach: Ego Climate			2.81	.76
Coach: Task Climate			4.20	.61
Parent: Learning/ Enjoyment Climate			4.30	.64
Parent: Success Without Effort Climate			2.73	1.05
Parent: Worry-Conducive Climate			3.06	.956

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: Does an athlete's goal orientation change over the course of a competitive youth football season?

Hypothesis 1: Athletes' ego orientation will change significantly over the course of a competitive youth football season.

Hypothesis 2: Athletes' task orientation will change significantly over the course of a competitive season youth football season.

Paired T-tests examined changes in ego orientation from early to late season. As indicated by Waldron and Krane (2005), it was expected that ego orientation would change over the course of a competitive season. Although results showed a slight decrease in ego orientation scores from early season to late season, there was no significant difference in average ego orientation scores from early season to late season

(t(148)= -.44, p=.66) (Table 6). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was rejected based on the findings that ego orientation does not significantly change over the course of a competitive season.

Paired T-tests also examined changes in task orientation from early to late season. It was expected that task orientation would change significantly over the course of a competitive season. A slight increase can be seen in task orientation scores from early season to late season, although the difference in average task scores from early season to late season was not statistically significant (t(148)= .287, p=.78) (Table 6). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was rejected based on the findings that task orientation does not significantly change over the course of a competitive season.

Table 6. *Paired T-Tests Comparing Late Season and Early Season*

	Mean	**T-stat**	**P-value**
Late Ego-Early Ego	-.0322	-.440	.660
Late Task- Early Task	.0136	.287	.775

Research Question 2: Do coach(es) and parents establish a motivational climate that affects the athletes' goal orientation over the course of a competitive youth football season?

Hypothesis 3: Task climates created by coaches will predict a task orientation in athletes and ego climates created by coaches will predict an ego orientation in athletes.

Hypothesis 4: The parents/guardians' climates of leaning and enjoyment, worry-conducive, and success without effort will have a significant impact on athletes' late season task orientation and ego orientation.

To test whether coaches and parents establish a motivational climate that affects the athletes' goal orientation over the course of a competitive youth football season, several predictors were considered. Predictors entered into the model for late season ego orientation included early season ego orientation, coach ego climate, coach task climate, parent learning and enjoyment, parent worry-conducive and parent success without effort. Predictors entered into the model for late season task orientation included early season task orientation, coach ego climate, coach task climate, parent learning and enjoyment, parent worry-conducive and parent success without effort. Multiple regression models tested the dependent variables of late season ego orientation and late season task orientation. For robustness, to find the best fitting models, stepwise regressions revealed significant predictors, with the stepwise models revealing the same set of significant independent variables as the full models.

When testing the dependent variable of late season ego orientation an alpha level of 0.1 was used in both regressions in order to stay consistent with the previous study (Howard, 2014; Sharp, 2014). The regressions revealed three independent variables as significant predictors for late season ego orientation: coach ego climate, early season ego orientation, and parent success without effort (Table 7). These predictors explained 38%

of total variance.

When testing the dependent variable of late season task an alpha level of 0.1 was used in both regressions in order to stay consistent with the previous study (Howard, 2014; Sharp, 2014). The regressions revealed two independent variables as significant predictors for late season task orientation: coach task climate and early season task orientation (Table 8). These predictors explained 40% of total variance.

Table 7. *Multiple Regression Analysis: Predictors of Late Season Ego Orientation*

Independent Variables	**Coefficient**	
	Full Model	**Optimal Forward Stepwise Model**
Constant	.779 (.144)	.085 (.720)
Coach: Ego Climate	.436 (.000)	.461 (.000)
Early Season Ego Orientation	.247 (.001)	.249 (.001)
Parent: Success Without Effort Climate	.097 (.098)	.106 (.063)
Parent: Worry-Conducive Climate	.009 (.889)	
Parent: Learning and Enjoyment Climate	-.039 (.707)	
Coach: Task Climate	-.113 (.319)	

*Numbers within parentheses represent P-values.

Table 8. *Multiple Regression Analysis: Predictors of Late Season Task Orientation*

Independent Variables	Coefficient	
	Full Model	**Optimal Forward Stepwise Model**
Constant	.634 (.171)	.774 (.059)
Coach: Task Climate	.462 (.000)	.452 (.000)
Early Season Task Orientation	.402 (.000)	.401 (.000)
Parent: Worry-Conducive Climate	-.001 (.987)	
Parent: Learning and Enjoyment Climate	-.006 (.930)	
Coach: Ego	-.011 (.857)	
Parent Success Without Effort Climate	.044 (.273)	

*Numbers within parentheses represent P-values.

Results for Hypothesis 3 were consistent with findings of Waldron and Krane (2005) and are supported by current literature on coaches' orientation (Boixados et al., 2004; Duda, 2012; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2001). Coach-created ego orientation climates significantly predicted participants' late season ego orientation. Similarly, coach-created task orientation climates significantly predicted participants' late season task orientation. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported based on the supported findings that ego climates created by coaches predict ego orientation in athletes and task climates created by coaches predict task orientation in athletes.

When looking at parent-created climates of worry-conducive, success without effort, and learning and enjoyment, only success without effort was found to be significant in predicting late season ego orientation. None of the three climates were found to be significant in predicting late season task orientation. Since results indicated that success without effort was a significant predictor of ego orientation, this means that parents do have some form of impact on the orientation of their child. Therefore, findings only partially support the hypothesis that climates of leaning and enjoyment, worry-conducive, and success without effort will have an impact on athletes' late season task orientation and ego orientation.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

According to achievement goal theory, an individual's views of success have the potential to change over time given the appropriate environmental influences (Nicholls, 1984). The primary purpose of this study was to examine, from the athlete's point of view, if the type of environment that coaches and parents create over the course of a competitive sport season has an influence on an athlete's views of success. This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses results from the data analysis. Next, the limitations for this current study are outlined followed by recommendations for future research and lastly a conclusion of this study.

Review of the Findings

Williams (1999) suggested considering multiple socialization factors when reviewing the changes in athletes' goal orientation over a competitive season. Therefore, based off of his suggestion and staying consistent with the study conducted by Waldon and Krane (2005), the current study focused on examining the *early season* and *late season* goal orientation of the adolescent male football players and the perceived coach- and parent-initiated motivational climates.

This study explored two research questions and four hypotheses that were all examined using SPSS software. A paired t-test was used to examine research question number one: *Does an athlete's goal orientation change over the course of a competitive*

youth football season? Two different regression models were run to examine research question 2: *Do coach(es) and parent(s) establish a motivational climate that affects the athletes' goal orientation over the course of a competitive youth football season?* The relationship between goal orientations and the perceived coach-initiated and parent-initiated motivational climate were by tested by using two regression models. A multiple regression model tested the dependent variables *late season ego orientation* and *late season task orientation*. For robustness, to find the best fitting models, a stepwise regression was then conducted to help reinforce significant predictors given by the multiple regression model, for both the dependent variables. In general, results found in this study were consistent with previous research with regards to the motivational climate in that a perceived task motivational climate was positively related to an athlete's task orientation and that a perceived ego motivational climate was positively related to an athlete's ego orientation (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). Although not found significant in this study, the results still reinforce the idea that socialization agents can have a direct impact on altering the orientation that an individual will adopt in the achievement setting.

An accumulating body of evidence suggests that a shift in goal orientation will occur due to believed perceptions of the created motivational climates within the sports setting (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004; Whitehead, Andree & Lee, 1997; William, 1998). Specifically, situational factors presented by different socialization agents play a role in the goals individuals adopt in achievement situations (Ames, 1992; Nicholls, 1989; Pensagaard & Roberts, 2001). Although the directional changes in both task and ego orientation could not be considered significant in this study, an overall decrease was

seen in ego orientation at the end of the season while there was a slight increase in task orientation over the season.

The similar, previously stated directional changes were seen in the study conducted by Waldron and Krane (2005). However, in the study conducted by Waldron and Krane (2005) on adolescent female softball players, they saw a significant decrease in ego orientation over the course of the season. It is possible the directional changes of task and ego orientation shown in this study's results are due to the coaches and parents creating a perceived task motivational climate. That is, both coaches and parents fostered an environment where athletes were encouraged to work on skill improvement and were recognized as key contributors to all components of the team (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). According to Papaioannou (1998) and Pelletier, Forter, Vallerand and Briere (2001), individuals who are in an environment perceived to reinforce a task climate will be more inclined to act fairly in sport and will become more intrinsically motived to participate in the sport, rather than being influenced by external factors to participate in the sport.

Conversely, consistent with past research, this study showed that perceptions of perceived coach-initiated ego climate are not significant in predicting *late season task orientation*. Likewise, the perceived coach-initiated task climate is not a significant predictor of *late season ego orientation* (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004). This study supports consistent findings of studies done both in and outside the sports realm. As found in Gano-Overway and Ewing's study of perceived motivational climate in the classroom over the course of a semester, the same relationship between perceived

teacher-initiated orientation related to task and ego orientation was found with the football players. That is, in the classroom setting a supported task climate facilitated higher levels of task orientation at the end of the semester and a supported ego climate facilitated higher levels of ego orientation at the end of the semester (Gano-Overway & Ewing, 2004).

In regards to research question number two, when testing the dependent variable *late season task orientation*, results from the two regression models yielded the same two significant predictors. These predictors were consistent with two predictors found for late season task orientation in the study conducted by Waldron and Krane (2005). The two predictors were *coach task climate* and *early season task orientation*. Additionally, Waldron and Krane yielded *parent learning and enjoyment* as a third predictor for *late season task orientation.* Although the directional change in task orientation was not significant in this study, there was an overall increase from early season task orientation to late season task orientation. Ganp-Overway and Ewing (2004), suggested that individuals who perceive an environment to be more task involving will be more inclined to adopt a task orientation. Based on the predictor *coach task climate*, the coaches in this study were perceived to be attempting to foster a task motivational climate for their athlete's to play in. The absence of the additional predictor of *parent learning and enjoyment* in this study indicates that the athletes did not perceive their parents/ guardians to be concerned with their overall mastery and satisfaction of the sport, thus perceiving them to be fostering a non-task motivational climate.

When testing the dependent variable *late season ego orientation,* results from the

two regression models yielded the same three significant predictors. The first predictor was in sync with the only predictor Waldron and Krane (2005) found for *late season ego orientation,* which was *early season ego orientation*. Additionally, in this study the *coach ego climate* and *parent success without effort climate* were found to be significant in both regression models a predictor of *late season ego orientation*. With the presence of the additional predictors in this study, the predictor *parent success without effort* indicates that the male athletes perceived their parents/guardians to be more concerned with succeeding with their natural abilities rather than learning and properly engaging in the sport. This predictor also suggests that parents in this study were perceived as over involved in their child's participation in the sport, thus creating unnecessary pressure and emotional distress to the athlete (Hellstedt, 1987).

Wuerth, Lee and Alfermann (2004), suggested that parents and coaches both play an important, but slightly different role in a player's development within sports. According to Duda (1989), Waldron and Krane (2005) and White et al. (2004), communication is constantly being exchanged from the coaches to the player and from the parents to the player. The two lines of communication coming from the parents and coaches will eventually become one line of communication creating the motivational climate. Coaches who foster a more ego motivational climate will enhance counter-productive behaviors, such as cheating and poor sportsmanship, thus causing stress that can lead to a potential lack of enjoyment in the sport (Duda, 2012). White et al. stated in their study of perceived parental beliefs that athletes' goal orientation and personal views of success were closely linked to the views that their parents possess. That is, a perceived

parental belief that effort is linked to success in the sports setting is related to task orientation. Conversely, a perceived parental belief of using external factors to make one look better is linked to an ego orientation. Based on the significant predictors found in this study, there is evidence to support past research suggesting that both parents and coaches play an important role in the adoption in orientation that athletes choose. However, the results lead one to believe that parents were more ego driven than the coaches, thus yielding a more ego driven athlete.

In an achievement setting, such as a competitive sport, task orientation is typically preferred over an ego orientation due to the athlete's intrinsic drive to engage in the sport. Typically, the ego-oriented athlete is the individual with the greater probability of engaging in unsportsmanlike conduct (Papaioannou, 1998). According to Wuerth et al. (2004), parents are often the primary socialization agents for children's engagement in sport. Athletes in this study perceived their parents to be more worried about their abilities to be successful in football without showing effort rather than being worried about their safety and enjoyment in the sport. Although there was a slight increase in task and a slight decrease in ego orientation over the course of the season, it is possible that the directional change in the study was not significant due to the mental block that athletes perceived from their parents. Waldron and Krane (2005) suggested that it is unclear how athletes will react if the motivational climate between the parents and the coaches differs. With parents in this study supporting more of an ego motivational climate in comparison to the coaches, we failed to see the directional change that Waldron and Krane (2005) reported in their study. Therefore, it can be suggested that

when the motivational climates between the parents and coaches do not match, athletes will not experience much of a directional change in orientation during the season.

Unlike here, the predictors of *coach ego climate* and *parent success without effort climate* were not found significant in Waldron and Krane's (2005) study on adolescent female athletes. This finding perhaps suggests that adolescent males are more concerned with the status *(ego)* of being an athlete as opposed to wanting to gain a perceived competence *(task)* in the sport. This would explain why Waldron and Krane (2005) were able to see a significant decline in their female athletes' ego orientation and why the males in this study did not show a significant decrease in ego over the course of the season. Duda (2012), in his study of relationships between task and ego orientation among student athletes, found that males tend to be more ego-orientated and females tend to be more task-orientated. Males also tend to hold the belief that athletics promotes competition and being successful in it will lead to greater social recognition as well as popularity among peers (Chin, Khoo & Low, 2012). Parents and coaches are consistently a strong link with their child's self-perception, motivation and sport involvement (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2008).

Given the results presented in both studies (Waldron and Krane, 2005), it appears that different socialization agents influence adolescent male and female behaviors. Resulting in the two additional male predictors of the *perceived coach ego climate* and *parent success without effort* in regards to *late season ego orientation*, it appears that the athletes in this study may not have been in the sport for personal enjoyment or to gain a sense of satisfaction from skill mastery. Rather, based on the results given by the athletes

of the perceived parent climate, participation could be viewed as a means of gaining a reward or to avoid punishment (Chin et al., 2012).

Implications for Practice

The expectations and values of parents and coaches can easily sway an athlete's motivation to participate within the sport (Brustad, Babkes & Smith 2001). In regards to the type of goal orientation that an athlete adopts, research has highlighted the importance of looking at environmental factors and the type of motivational climates that responsible socialization agents, such as coaches and parents, are fostering. The fostered motivational climate can either hinder the development of or encourage positive change within the athlete. To ensure that the best interest of the athlete is being met, this current study supports the need for practitioners to consider coaches and parents in regards of the orientation that they have adopted in the achievement setting.

While this study is only a small step in identifying a viable piece of the solution, practitioners are encouraged to place emphasis on coach and parent involvement within sports. Specifically, through this study it was found that coaches were fostering a more task orientation where as parents/ guardians were fostering a more ego orientation. Based on these results, practitioners should establish the types of environments that they wish for their programs to foster and then establish benchmarking standards that will help foster the specific goal orientation.

Practitioners should create set guidelines of what physical and verbal information coaches can and cannot display to athletes. Coaches who provide appropriate

reinforcement and praise, positive encouragement after mistakes and appropriate instructions will positively influence an athlete's motivation to participate (Conroy and Coatsworth, 2006). According to Visek et al. (2009), a common way for practitioners to enhance an athlete's engagement is to incorporate game-like experiences as a way of conveying mental skills and to gain tactical understanding.

Parents can make valuable contributions to their athlete's learning and enjoyment by sharing their time, experiences and talents in an out-of-home setting. Practitioners should encourage more hands on parent involvement in regards to youth sport league. Creating more interactive pieces to give them chances to share information about their views and to become invested.

Past research has shown that children tend to share the same orientation as their parents (Waldron and Krane, 2005; White et al., 2004). One way to increase an athlete's motivation is for practitioners to create an environment that supports their parents and their parenting role. By creating more opportunities for parents to engage in the achievement setting rather than just visiting, this will enhance the athlete's sense of motivation as well as potentially enrich his or her learning and enjoyment. Through this engagement, parents can strengthen their relationships with the coaches and can become more invested and help reinforce what the coaches are teaching their athlete. This allows their support and facilitation to better align with the coaches'.

In sum, the ultimate goal of youth sport programs should be to nurture an athlete's intrinsic motivation in sports. Through developing these programs, athletes will be introduced to the positive benefits from sports participation such as an increase in self-

esteem, social skills, emotional development and a reduction in health related issues (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009; Keegan, 2010). The results of this study offer hope that recreation professional can find effective ways of influencing and creating real, behavioral change in these responsible socialization agents. If this change can be extended beyond a short-term effect, recreational professionals can help impact not only the physical health of the individual, but also the overall well-being of the individual.

Limitations of the Study

In this study, data collection was restricted due to unexpected weather conditions and individual cancellations of team practices as well as schedules and conditions determined by Greenville County Parks, Recreation and Tourism (GCPRT). Due to inclement weather, early season data were collected at the GCPRT department during required weigh ins conducted by GCPRT, instead of at each team's playing field. Late season data collection was conducted at each team's field before practice, but due to weather and personal cancellations, the researchers had to go to several teams more than once to pass out the questionnaires. Thus, there is a possibility that the lack of consistency in the data collection site could have affected the responses of the participants on the questionnaires. Furthermore, even though all participants were given the questionnaires before practice, because the researcher had to give some teams the questionnaires on different days, it is possible that this could have affected the responses of the participants. Future research should continue to strive to administer the questionnaire at the same location for each team and administering the questionnaire to

the entire team at one time.

Due to the change in venue for the early season data collection from an open field to an enclosed facility, the researcher had a hard time keeping parents and coaches from answering questions that the participants had and keeping them from assisting the participants in reading. It is possible that the direct presence of the coaches and parents could have pressured the athletes to not give their true answer, but rather an answer they felt their parents and coaches wanted to see them give.

Lastly, this study was confined to a maximum of 12 weeks. However, this does not mean that every athlete had 12 weeks worth of contact with the coaches. It was under the coaches' discretion as to when they started their season and the number of practices they scheduled per week. Therefore, the contact time some athletes had with their coaches exceeded the amount of contact time others received. This limitation could be the reason why there were no significant directional changes seen in this study.

Recommendations for Future Research

The slight shifts in orientation found in this study are interesting considering each team met no more than three times a week (including practice and games) and their maximum time for each meeting lasted no longer than two hours. It would be interesting to see this study conducted on a team that had a season lasting longer than 12 weeks to look at shifts in orientation. If a shift in orientation did occur it would be interesting to conduct a follow up study to examine whether the resulting changes in goal orientation related to the motivational climate would remain once the season is completed or whether

it was a temporary strategy that the athletes developed to learn how to cope with the environment.

Given the impact of the perceived parent predictor of success without effort in regard to ego orientation, another avenue to explore would be to examine only the parent-child relationship. White et al. (2004) and Ames (1992) have both suggested that parents make their goal preference clear when they are talking to their children about their sport experience. For example, when the athlete returns home from a competitive game and the parent asks, "Did you win?", the athlete gets a clear message about what his or her parent deems most important. Roberts (1994) and White (1988) both suggested that parents vary on the importance they place on different aspects of their child's behavior such as trying hard, consecutive winning, improvements, and so on. With that known, future research should focus on specific indicators (such as trying hard) that adolescents base their perceptions regarding the beliefs about success held by their parent.

Another potential area for future research would be to conduct case or multi-case studies on coaches who do create a perceived task-involving climate for their athletes to participate in order to closely examine the strategies they use and the behaviors they adopt in order to foster a task-involving climate. A task orientation may lead to higher levels of perceived competence in the sport, which as past research has suggested leads to higher levels of intrinsic motivation to participate (Boyd, Weinmann &Yin, 2002). According to Pensgaard and Roberts (2001), furthering our understanding of how to assist coaches in creating the preferred motivational climate of task during a competitive sport season will lead to an increase of athletes experiencing the positive benefits from

youth sport participation. The idea of a task-involving motivational climate is a highly relevant research topic in sports (Papaioannou, 1998).

Furthermore, it would be interesting to conduct on site observations of the different coaching patterns to see if a task motivational climate or and ego motivational climate is being fostered and from there see what the coaches feel they are actually fostering. It would be interesting to see the similarities and differences of their physical actions and what they verbally convey.

Lastly, it would be interesting to take the data collected with this current study and analyze it in alternative ways. It would be interesting to see the orientation of the teams who had a winning season vs. the teams who had a losing season. In addition, at an individual level, it would be interesting to looking at the orientation of the athletes who were playing their first year of football vs. the ones that were in their second or plus years of football.

Conclusion

The results of this study highlight the potential role that a perceived coach and parent created motivational climate can have in affecting athletes' motivation for engaging in sports. For recreational professionals, coaches and parents to understand their role in influencing athletes' orientation for participation in organized sports, researchers need to examine situational factors, such as the created motivational climate, and the impressions that they have on athletes. According to Chin et al. (2012), athletes who enjoy athletics have higher perceived competence and are more likely to participate in

sports. This will lead them to experience a number of benefits including an increase in self-esteem and social skills as well as a decrease in health issues (Stuntz & Weiss, 2009; Keegan, 2010). This will in turn produce a greater level of intrinsic motivation among the athletes and practitioners of organized recreational sports could potentially see an increase in participation.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

IRB Approval Parent Permission Form

Parent Permission Form
Clemson University

Motivational Climate and Goal Orientation in Adolescent Male Football Players

Description of the Research and Your Child's Part in It

Dr. Denise Anderson, along with Christman McPherson, is inviting your child to take part in a research study. Dr. Anderson is an Associate Professor at Clemson University. Christman is a graduate student at Clemson University, running this study with the help of Dr. Anderson. The purpose of this research is to examine the changes in athletes' views of success during a competitive season.

Your child's part in this study will be to complete 2 surveys. Surveys will be given out on two different occasions over the course of the 2014 Greenville County Parks, Recreation and Tourism football season. The first survey will be given out during the first two weeks of the season and the second survey will be given out during the last three weeks of the season.

It will take your child about 20 minutes to take part in this study each time data are collected.

Risks and Discomforts

We do not know of any risks or discomforts that your child would experience from participation in this research study.

Possible Benefits

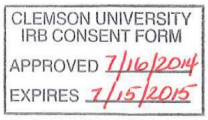
We do not know of any way your child would benefit directly from taking part in this study. However, this research may help us to understand what is influences an athlete's enjoyment and perceived competence in organized sports and thus help to inform better coach and parent education programs in the future.

Protection of Privacy and Confidentiality

We will do everything we can to protect your child's privacy and confidentiality. We will not tell anybody outside of the research team that your child was in this study or what information we collected about your child in particular.

Your child will be asked to put their first initial and last name on the surveys to be able to measure change in pre-season data to post-season data. After questionnaires are completed Ms. McPherson will code your child's response so they will not be identifiable by name or demographic data. All paper surveys will be stored in a locked room where only Ms. McPherson will be able to access and all electronic data will be stored on a password protected file that only Dr. Anderson and Ms. McPherson will be able to access. All data will be destroyed after 5 years following the completion of this study.

This form is valid only if the Clemson University IRB stamp of approval is shown here:



We might be required to share the information we collect from your child with the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance, Greenville County Parks, Recreation and Tourism Department and the federal Office for Human Research Protections. If this happens, the information would only be used to find out if we ran this study properly and protected your child's rights in the study.

Choosing to Be in the Study

Your child does not have to be in this research study. You do not have to let your child be in the study. You may tell us at any time that you do not want your child to be in the study anymore. Your child will not be punished in any way if you decide not to let your child be in the study or if you stop your child from continuing in the study. Your child's participation or refusal to participate in this study will have no impact on his participation in the football league.

If you choose to have your child stop taking part in this study, the information your child has already provided will be used in a confidential manner.

We will also ask your child if they want to take part in this study. Your child will be able to refuse to take part or to quit being in the study at any time.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Dr. Anderson at Clemson University at 864-656-5679.

If you have any questions or concerns about your child's rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at 864-656-6460 or irb@clemson.edu. If you are outside of the Upstate South Carolina area, please use the ORC's toll-free number, 866-297-3071.

Consent

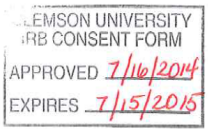
I have read this form and have been allowed to ask any questions I might have. I give my permission for my child to be in this study.

Parent's signature: _____ Date: _____

Child's Name: _____

A copy of this form will be given to you.

This form is valid only if the Clemson University IRB stamp of approval is shown here:



Appendix B

IRB Child/Minor Assent Form

Child/Minor Agreement to Be in a Research Study
Clemson University

Motivational Climate and Goal Orientation in Adolescent Male Football Players

You are being invited to be in a research study. Your participation is voluntary, which means you can choose whether or not you want to be in this study. Below you will find answers to some of the questions that you may have.

Who Are We?

- Dr. Denise Anderson is a professor at Clemson University. Christman McPherson is a student at Clemson University who will be helping Dr. Anderson with this research project.

What Is It For?

- We are conducting this research to help us better understand what motivates athletes to play sports.

Why You?

- You are being asked to take part in this study because you are participating in Greenville County's football league for fall of 2014.

What Will You Have to Do?

- You will fill out a total of 2 surveys that will ask questions about you, your coaches, and your parents. We will ask you to fill out the different forms before practice on two different occasions during the season. One survey will be completed at the beginning of the season and one at the end of the season.
- Your coaches and parents will not be able to help you when you are completing the surveys. If you have any questions, Christman will be with you to help you in any way possible.

What Are the Good Things and Bad Things that May Happen to You If You Are in the Study?

- We do not know of any way you would benefit directly from taking part in this study. However, this research may help us to understand why athletes' enjoy playing sports and how they feel about their performance in a sport.
- There are no bad things that might happen to you if you participate in the study. Your participation in the study will not have any impact on your participation in football.

What If You Want to Stop? Will You Get in Trouble?

- You do not have to take part in this research study. You may tell us at any time that you do not want to be in the study anymore. You will not be punished in any way if you decide you do not want to continue in the study.
- If you choose to stop taking part in this study, the information that you have already provided will be used in a confidential manner.

This form is valid only if the Clemson University IRB stamp of approval is shown here:

CLEMSON UNIVERSITY
IRB CONSENT FORM
APPROVED 7/16/2014
EXPIRES 7/15/2015

- This research will not be used to positively or negatively impact your participation in the football season.

Do You Have Any Questions?

- You can ask questions at any time. You can ask them now. You can ask later. You can talk to me or you can talk to someone else at any time during the study. Here is the telephone numbers to reach us: 864-656-3036. This is the main phone number to the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management at Clemson University where Dr. Anderson and Christman work.

By being in this study, I am saying that I have read this form and have asked any questions that I may have. All of my questions have been answered and I understand what I am being asked to do. I am willing and would like to be in this study.

A copy of this form will be given to you.

This form is valid only if the Clemson University IRB stamp of approval is shown here:

CLEMSON UNIVERSITY
IRB CONSENT FORM
APPROVED 7/16/2014
EXPIRES 7/15/2015

Appendix C

Background Questionnaire

Last Name: _____

First Initial: _____

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Read each question below. Answer truthfully on the lines provided. Write as neatly as you can and include as much information as possible for each question.

1. What is your gender?

___ Male ___ Female

2. What year were you born? _____

3. What school will you be attending this fall?

_____

4. What grade will you be starting this fall?

_____

5. How would you classify yourself?

___ Arab

___ Asian/ Pacific Islander

___ Black/ African American

___ Caucasian/ White

___ Hispanic

___ Latino

___ Multiracial

___ Other (please specify) _____

___ Rather not say

6. Is this your first season of tackle football?

____ Yes ____ No

If ***No***, how many seasons of tackle football have you played?

____ 2 seasons

____ 3 seasons

____ 4 seasons

____ More than 4 seasons (please specify) _____

7. How much time do you spend each week practicing football outside of your team's scheduled practice time?

____ Less than an hour

____ 1 to 2 hours

____ 3 to 4 hours

____ 5 to 6 hours

____ 7 to 8 hours

____ 9 to 10 hours

____ More than 10 hours (please specify) _____

8. Did you know the coach(es) before the start of this football season?

___ Yes ___ No

If ***Yes***, please explain how you knew them prior to this season starting.

_____

_____

Appendix D

Task and Ego Questionnaire in Sport Orientation (TEOSQ)

Last Name: _____

First Initial: _____

TASK AND EGO ORIENTATION IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTONS: Give your reaction to the following statements in regards to how you usually or generally feel about the sport of football. You are asked to rank your reaction by indicating:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

I feel most successful in football when…

1. I'm the only one who can do the play or skill.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can do better than my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The other can't do as well as me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I learn something that is fun to do.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Others mess up and I don't.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I learn a new skill by trying hard.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I work really hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I score the most points/touchdowns/hits, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Something I learn makes me want to go and practice more.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I'm the best.	1	2	3	4	5
12. A skill I learn really feels right.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I do my very best.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E

Post-Task and Ego Questionnaire in Sport Orientation (TEOSQ)

Last Name: _____

First Initial: _____

TASK AND EGO ORIENTATION IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTONS: Give your reaction to the following statements in regards to how you usually or generally feel about the sport of football. You are asked to rank your reaction by indicating:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

I feel most successful in football when…

1. I'm the only one who can do the play or skill.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can do better than my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The other can't do as well as me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I learn something that is fun to do.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Others mess up and I don't.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I learn a new skill by trying hard.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I work really hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I score the most points/touchdowns/hits, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Something I learn makes me want to go and practice more.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I'm the best.	1	2	3	4	5
12. A skill I learn really feels right.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I do my very best.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F

Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire-2 (PMCSQ-2)

Last Name: _____

First Initial: _____

PERCEIVED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE-2

DIRECTIONS: Please think about how it has felt to play on your team throughout this season. What is it usually like on your team? Read the following statements listed below and respond to each in terms of how you view the typical atmosphere on your team. How you feel may be different from the others around you, so be certain to take your time and answer as honestly as possible. Circle the under that best represents how you feel.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

On this team…

1. The coach wants us to try new skills/movements.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The coach gets mad when a player makes a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The coach gives most of his or her attention to the starters.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Each player contributes in some important way.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The coach believes that all of us are crucial to the success of the team.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The coach praises payers only when they outplay teammates.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The coach thinks only the starts contribute to the success of the team.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Players feel good when they try their best.	1	2	3	4	5

9. Players are taken out of a game for mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Players at all skill levels have an important role on the team.	1	2	3	4	5
11. On this team, players help each other learn.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Players are encouraged to do better than the other players.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The coach has his or her own Favorites.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The coach makes sure players improve on skills they're not good at.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The coach yells at players for messing up.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Players feel successful when they improve.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Only the players with the best 'stats' get praise.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Players are punished when they make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Each player has an important role.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Trying hard is rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The coach encourages players to help each other.	1	2	3	4	5
22. The coach makes it clear who he or she thinks are the best players.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Players are 'psyched' when they do better than their teammates in a game.	1	2	3	4	5

24. If you want to play in a game you must be one of the best players.	1	2	3	4	5
25. The coach emphasizes always trying to do your best.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Only the top players 'get noticed' by the coach.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Players are afraid to make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Players are encouraged to work on their weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5
29. The coach favors some players more than others.	1	2	3	4	5
30. The focus is to improve each game/practice.	1	2	3	4	5
31. The players really 'work together' as a team.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Each player feels as if they are an important team member.	1	2	3	4	5
33. The players help each other to get better and excel.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix G

Male- Perceived Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire (M-PIMCQ)

Last Name: _____

First Initial: _____

PERCEIVED INITIATED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Give your reaction to the following statements in regards to how you usually or generally feel about how your ***male*** caretaker makes you feel about your involvement in football. You are asked to rank your reaction by indicating:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

I feel that my male caretaker…

1. Is satisfied when I improve after hard effort.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Is satisfied when I learn something new.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Pays attention to whether I am improving my skills.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Views making mistakes as a part of learning.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Values my learning one thing before teaching me another.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Worries about my failing.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Worries about my failing because it's negative.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Makes me afraid to make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Feels badly when I can't do as well as others.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Worries about me performing skills I'm not good at.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Is satisfied when I achieve without trying hard.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Is satisfies when I win without effort.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Believes I should achieve a lot without much effort.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Thinks it is important for me to achieve without trying hard.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix H

Female- Perceived Initiated Motivational Climate Questionnaire (F-PIMCQ)

Last Name: _____

First Initial: _____

PERCEIVED INITIATED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Give your reaction to the following statements in regards to how you usually or generally feel about how your ***female*** caretaker makes you feel about your involvement in football. You are asked to rank your reaction by indicating:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

I feel that my female caretaker…

1. Is satisfied when I improve after hard effort.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Is satisfied when I learn something new.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Pays attention to whether I am improving my skills.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Views making mistakes as a part of learning.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Values my learning one thing before teaching me another.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Worries about my failing.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Worries about my failing because it's negative.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Makes me afraid to make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Feels badly when I can't do as well as others.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Worries about me performing skills I'm not good at.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Is satisfied when I achieve without trying hard.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Is satisfies when I win without effort.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Believes I should achieve a lot without much effort.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Thinks it is important for me to achieve without trying hard.	1	2	3	4	5

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